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ORGANIZATIONAL ISSUES IN OLYMPIC GAMES: A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW

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The purpose of this study is to extend previous research on organizational issues of sport mega-events through the development of a framework for the Olympic Games. A three-step approach was taken. Firstly, a systematic literature review was conducted based on journal articles, academic books, and official reports published by the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and Olympic Games Organizing Committees (OGOC). Secondly, the issues identified within the media regarding the 2016 Olympic Games were analyzed. Lastly, semistructured interviews were conducted with 10 stakeholders to further examine the organizational issues of the 2016 Rio Olympic Games. A new extended conceptual framework of organizational issues associated with the Olympic Games is then proposed. Issue categories faced by the organizing committee include politics, marketing, media and visibility, financial, planning, negotiation and ethics, operations, infrastructure, human resources, social, environmental, and legacy. These 12 dimensions of organizational issues account for a total of 76 specific issues. The article provides critical information to aid the IOC and OGOCs in understanding organizational issues that may arise in future of Olympic Games.

Key words: Organizational issues; Issues management; Sport mega-events; Olympic Games; Systematic review

Introduction

Planning and hosting a sport mega-event such as the Olympic Games is a complex undertaking (Parent et al., 2011). In recent years, many issues affecting organizing committees and their stakeholders have been recognized as having an influence on the planning and hosting of these events (Parent &

Smith-Swan, 2013). Previous studies have highlighted a variety of issues (e.g., human resources, risk management, infrastructure, political considerations, operations, financial considerations, and legacy) that organizing committees may face, and how and why these issues occur within the organization of sport mega-events (Leopkey & Parent, 2009; Parent & Chappelet, 2015; Xing et al.,

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2008). Collins et al. (2007) further discussed that sport mega-events may be challenging for the host nation or city before, during, and after the unfolding of the event.

As an illustration, in 2005, when London was voted to host the 2012 Olympic Games, a budget of £2.4 billion was announced. Two years later, it increased to £9.35 billion, with the final cost being £8.77 billion (BBC Sport, 2013). Other examples can be highlighted such as the financial troubles in Montreal 1976 (Levine, 2003), transportation and security problems in Atlanta 1996 (Ratnatunga & Muthaly, 2000), and logistical and construction problems in Athens 2004 (Athens Olympic Games Official Report, 2004; Frantzeskakis & Frantzeskakis, 2006). Furthermore, the recent 2016 Rio Olympic Games and 2014 FIFA World Cup triggered severe riots among local communities (Parent & Chappelet, 2015). Thus, it is vital to create a framework considering the current organizational issues that simultaneously contribute to the event management literature and provide managers with a tool to help in the planning and delivery. Although some previous studies (e.g., Parent, 2008) have suggested frameworks of organizational issues related to different types of events (e.g., Olympic Games, World Cup) and temporary committees (e.g., OCOG), the most recent ones date back to the start of the century (Burbank et al., 2001; Parent, 2008; Ratnatunga & Muthaly, 2000) and new contemporary issues affecting sport-event organizing committees need to be considered (Parent & Smith-Swan, 2013). The development of a new framework of organizational issues assumes particular importance for hosts subjected to criticism by their citizens (Boykoff, 2017; Dulac & Henry, 2001; Parent & Chappelet, 2015). For example, the 2016 Rio Olympic Games were affected by the global Zika virus epidemic, political and economic crises, fear of terrorist attacks, high crime rates, and corruption scandals (Jacobo, 2016; The Wall Street Journal, 2016a). Considering that a comprehensive framework regarding organizational issues can contribute as a source of potential event value (Parent, 2008), the purpose of the current study is to extend previous literature through the creation of a new framework of different types of organizational issues faced by event hosts. In doing so, a systematic review of the literature was first developed followed by a content analysis to

identify additional specific issues raised through media. Subsequently, interviews were conducted with stakeholders of the 2016 Rio Olympic Games to support and further examine the organizational issues challenging the event.

Literature Review

Organizational issues typically occur when decisions made by an organization do not meet the standards of what society considers to be appropriate behavior (Zyglidopoulos, 2003). In the case of a sport event, an issue is likely to involve different perceptions between the organizing committee and their stakeholders and has implications for both society and the host (Parent, 2008). Hilgartner and Bosk (1988) noted that an issue represents projected collective sentiments instead of simply mirroring objective conditions; thus, being subject to the interpretation of interested parties, both inside and outside organization. For example, in the 2016 Rio Olympic Games, the Zika virus was not a global issue until the media, athletes, and the World Health Organization began to express concerns and called for the postponement or moving of the event (The Washington Post, 2016a). In response to these various external pressures, the organizing committee warned athletes to take precautions against Zika virus and the state government invested funds to eradicate the virus (The Telegraph, 2016).

Issues management theory (Chase, 1982) and stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984) helped explain perceptions of organizational issues in sport mega-events. In general, issues management postulates an anticipatory, strategic management process that helps organizations detect and respond appropriately to emerging trends or changes in the sociopolitical environment (Heath, 2002). In the context of the Olympic Games, these changes may then crystallize into an "issue" when stakeholders' expectations, needs, or interests are different than organizing committee's perceptions (Parent, 2008). For example, before the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games, changes to local environmental laws were the result of lobbying by various stakeholders, including health and safety agencies, car manufacturers, and organizing committee (Glenn, 2014). In turn, stakeholder theory is concerned with studying the relationship between a focal organization and its stakeholders (Bryson,

2004; Jones & Wicks, 1999). When applied to the Olympic Games, it allows hosts to identify their stakeholders and assist in strategically managing these relationships. Sport organizations, either large as the IOC or small as an interest-based volunteer club, have a variety of stakeholders (i.e., groups and individuals whose relationships with the organization are based on certain objectives and interests; Friedman et al., 2004). For example, governments may expect return on their investment to increase the nation's visibility internationally and to build national pride (W. Kim & Walker, 2012; Rocha, 2017); the community wants the event to be accessible (Inoue & Havard, 2014); sport organizations are concerned with technical aspects and they want a piece of the legacy (Leopkey & Parent, 2012); and sport delegations, among other things, want good and diverse food service at the event (Parent & Smith-Swan, 2013).

In the case of the Olympic Games, national governments, athletes, and corporate sponsors have differing interests with regards to issues that impact the IOC. Due to the impermanent constituent environments, event managers can benefit from a robust and systematic method of stakeholder prioritization based on the assessment of situational factors (Friedman et al., 2004; Parent & Deephouse, 2007). Following Dimeo and Kay (2004), the partnership approach between the event's stakeholders may introduce another set of tensions and challenges as the organizing committee attempts to manage expectations, facilities, security, and transport, among other issues. Common issue categories in sport mega-events include power/politics, planning/organizing, financial, sponsorship, ticket sales, human resources, leadership, facilities, cultural events, tourism, weather, media, public support, relationship and/or negotiations, legacy, and local infrastructure (Burbank et al., 2001; Parent & Smith-Swan, 2013; Yarbrough, 2000). As noted by Ratnatunga and Muthaly (2000), three categories of issues were evident at the 1996 Atlanta Olympic Games: logistical issues (e.g., traffic, street closures, and garbage collection during the Games), business issues (e.g., forecasting, strategic planning, branding, marketing, cost control, and equipment leasing), and infrastructure issues (e.g., licensing, permits, and employee management). In turn, Parent (2008) provided an expanded list

of 13 issue categories that organizing committees may face depending on the make-up of the organizing committee. These previous studies suggest that the Olympic Games are affected by a set of organizational issues from pre- to post-Games (Chalip, 2006; Mao & Huang, 2016), but new issues are constantly arising. For example, perceived corruption in the bidding process for the 2002 Winter Olympic Games in Salt Lake City (Friedman et al., 2004), doping scandals before and during the events (The Guardian, 2017), or residential issues in the host cities have occurred in recent events (BBC, 2016a). Also, with the advances of new technologies and the demands of the Olympic Agenda 2020, new problems have arisen for the organizing committee of this mega-event, including social and housing issues, and the sustainability of the Games (Giulianotti et al., 2014). In the 2016 Olympic Games hosted in Rio de Janeiro (Brazil), increased poverty, crime in the slums, inadequate event infrastructure, public education, and health assistance were among the most problematic issues (Biscaia et al., 2017; The Guardian, 2016a). The Olympic Games have become difficult to manage and risky to organize (Parent & Chappelet, 2015), given that many social, sustainability, and economic issues influence local communities (Mao & Huang, 2016) and nations (Waitt, 2003; Xu, 2006), contributing to a decline in cities bidding to host these events (MacAloon, 2016). Thus, additional studies are needed to update the existing frameworks (e.g., Parent, 2008) through the collection of new data with analysis directed towards the challenges of contemporary mega-events such as the Olympic Games (Xing et al., 2008). Through a systematic review, content/document analysis, and interviews with stakeholders, the current study examines issue-categories faced by the Olympic Games Organizing Committees.

Methodology

To address the purpose of the study, a descriptive case study approach of the 2016 Rio Olympic Games, its organizing committee and stakeholders was undertaken. The nature of mega-events, which take place independently of each other, means that the single case study approach, adopted by this research, is appropriate. Indeed, as Barrick et al.

(2016) argued, case study research allows practitioners to develop a greater understanding regarding the individuals involved in such an event. This research was completed through a three-step procedure. Firstly, a systematic review of the literature surrounding organizational issues was conducted to identify and classify issue categories and specific associated issues in each of these categories. Secondly, a documentary analysis was developed in order to assess the organizational issues published within the media. Thirdly, semistructured interviews were conducted with 10 Olympic stakeholders to further understand the organizational issues surrounding the 2016 Rio Olympic Games.

This mixed-method approach provides a more holistic understanding of organizational issues within sport mega-events, being essential to untangle the complex issues shaping the relationship network of event stakeholders (Xing et al., 2008). Furthermore, a combination of case-based qualitative approaches with broader quantitative methods is important to reinforce the understanding of organizational issues (Parent & Smith-Swan, 2013).

Research Setting

The 2016 Olympic Games in Rio de Janeiro were the first to be hosted in South America (National Post, 2016). A total of 11,238 athletes representing 207 National Olympic Committees competed in the event (IOC, 2017) and it included the first-time entrants of Kosovo, South Sudan, and the Refugee Olympic team. Rocha (2017) argued that in order to plan, organize, and stage sport mega-events, organizers must know in advance the opinion of their main stakeholders. Considering that some Olympic stakeholders (e.g., team delegations, media, organizing committee) have privileged information about costs and benefits of the Olympic Games, they are more likely to know the actions and expectations of the organizing committee (Parent, 2008). Furthermore, stakeholders have a strong influence on the development of an organization's identity such as the Olympic Games (Scott & Lane, 2000), and for this reason it is important to understand the critical issues affecting their interests and expectations (Reichart, 2003).

The awarding of the 2016 Summer Olympics to the city of Rio de Janeiro continued the trend of

international sports mega-events being hosted by BRICS nations as part of long-term development plans and policies (Millington & Darnell, 2012). As a legacy project, the organizers of the 2016 Rio Olympic Games intended to introduce a wider array of public transport options, renovate the infrastructure of the *favelas* to provide improved transportation and access to utilities, upgrade Rio's sewer system to remediate the pollution level in the Guanabara Bay (The Guardian, 2016c), and plant 24 million seedlings to offset the expected carbon emissions of the Games. However, some of these projects were met with delays and faced economic shortfalls, this led to severe riots by the local communities (Parent & Chappelet, 2015).

Step 1: Systematic Review

Data Sources. This review is confined to articles written in English and published in peer-reviewed journals, academic books, and official reports by the OCOG. A systematic literature search of studies published between 1990 and December 2015 was undertaken on the computerized databases EBSCO, SPORTDiscus, and Science Direct. Additional procedures included manual cross-referencing of the reference lists of articles identified through the initial search. Studies published before 1990 were not included due to lack of contemporaneity and applicability to recent events. Furthermore, as Leopkey and Parent (2012) noted, the concept of legacy was not considered as part of the Olympic narrative until the 1990s. The review comprised both cross-sectional and longitudinal studies, and multiple methodological approaches. The following keywords were used during the search: organizational issues (mega-event) OR Olympic issues OR event issues OR event problems AND Olympic Games OR sport mega-event OR major sports events. The keywords' choice was based on the use of relevant and consistent expressions with the research topic, key phrases, and words specific and highly focused on the Olympic Games.

The inclusion criteria included the following: complete articles available in the computerized databases mentioned above; conformity to the set of keywords; articles that propose conceptual frameworks on the subject study (e.g., Parent, 2008); official documents issued by the IOC and/or the organizing committees of the last five editions

of the Olympic Games (2000–2016); and official reports published by the 2016 Rio Organizing Committee. In turn, articles were excluded if they were not written in English and have been published in newspapers without a peer-review process.

Procedures. Firstly, abstracts of all identified articles were read and those that did not comply with the criteria were excluded ($n = 263$). Then studies that did not include either organizational issues or Olympic Games variables were excluded ($n = 385$; accounting for most of the excluded studies). At this stage, all relevant and full manuscripts were retrieved ($n = 65$). Next, reference lists of the identified articles and previous review articles on the topic were read, resulting in a total of 40 articles being analyzed. Secondly, academic books on the topic were also reviewed, and manual searches were conducted in the databases and journals for authors who regularly publish in this area. Academic books

were then read, and the following inclusion criteria were used: published by experts in the event management field; peer reviewed; inclusion of organizational issues frameworks; and description of issues that occur in the Olympic Games through historical examples. This search yielded six additional books, totaling 46 potentially relevant documents. Thirdly, official reports published by the IOC ($n = 10$), final official reports regarding the last four editions of the Olympic Games (Sydney 2000, Athens 2004, Beijing 2008, and London 2012) and previous official reports published by the 2016 Rio Olympic Games Organizing Committee ($n = 15$) were also reviewed. Despite the possible bias of official reports published by the host organizations, these documents were incorporated as they often have findings that comply with popular theory and allow a more comprehensive analysis of the subject under research (Duval & Tweedie, 2000). A total of 29 documents were considered relevant for the

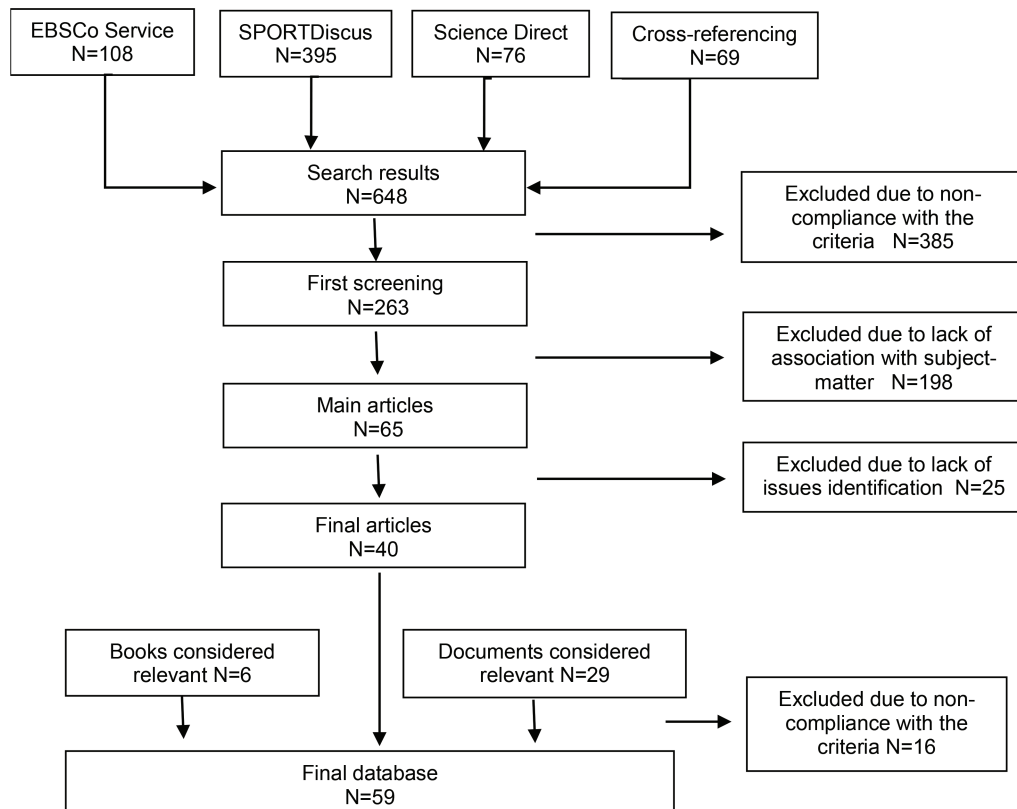


Figure 1. Research strategy used.

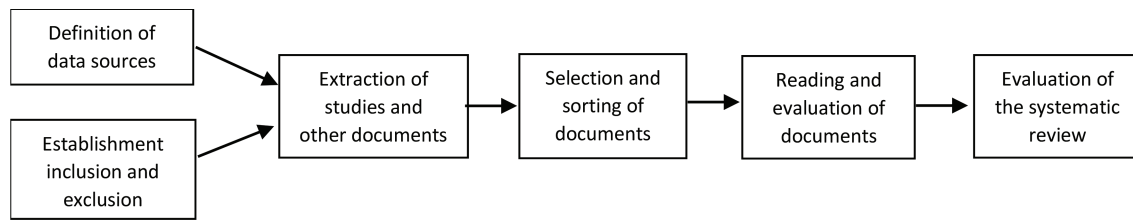


Figure 2. Process model used in the systematic literature review.

analysis. All these reports were read and reviewed following the criteria reported above, resulting in 13 reports useful for this systematic review. Finally, a total of 59 documents (articles, academic books, and official reports) fulfilled all inclusion criteria, and thus were included in the review. Figure 1 shows the detailed research strategy used in the literature systematic review (Fig. 1).

All documents were initially coded with a bibliography number, but organizational issues in the Olympic Games were considered as the unit of analysis in the current review. Data tables (See Appendix 1 and Appendix 2 at <http://twixar.me/Yyym>) were developed with research designs, references, study type, event time, measures, and examples. To better understand each phase of the methodological process developed in this systematic review of literature, a flow chart is presented in Figure 2.

Data Coding and Analyses. Following Filo et al. (2015), three types of studies were considered in the current analysis: primary, secondary, and conceptual. Studies classified as primary used face-to-face research data collection. The procedures used in primary studies include online and in-loco questionnaires, interviews, and focus groups. Secondary studies were based on archival materials. The methods used in this group of studies were content and documentary analysis. Finally, conceptual studies are based on theory, trends, and concepts without empirical data.

Three generic evaluation criteria were considered in the analysis of the identified documents (Kmet et al., 2004; Ryan et al., 2007): the study's significance (e.g., research with relevance to the study of organizational issues), methodological approaches (e.g., studies in which the method has been described), and references (e.g., studies supported by references). Each criterion was scored with "1" value. The

absence of criterion corresponds to the evaluation of "0." This type of quality assessment identified the potential strengths and weaknesses of the documents under review. Finally, an evaluation based on the AMSTAR scale (Assessment of Multiple Systematic Reviews; Shea et al., 2007) was used consisting of 11 items whose evaluation criteria is "yes," "no," "impossible to answer," or "not applicable." For each "yes," a value was considered (Faggion et al., 2012). Two reviewers from different universities and with expertise in sport event research carried out this process and the discrepancies found between the two were resolved by consensus. According to AMSTAR, the quality of the systematic review varies from 1 to 11 points, and the value for the current analysis was 7.5. There was no conflict of interests in the current systematic review.

Step 2: Documentary Analysis

Data Sources and Procedures. News published in the media was reviewed to further examine the issues raised at the 2016 Rio Olympic Games. Data were collected from June 1 to August 4, 2016, corresponding to the preevent period. All news was published in national and international online newspapers ($n = 24$). A total of 24 online newspapers were used (*O Globo*, *Estadão*, *The New York Times*, *The Wall Street Journal*, *BBC*, *Agência Brasil*, *Jornal de Notícias*, *RTPN*, *SicNotícias*, *El País*, *TSF*, *USA TODAY*, *Gazeta do Povo*, *UOL*, *ESPN*, *CM Jornal*, *Rede Record*, *Canaltech*, *O Paraná*, *Exame*, *SputnikNews*, *O Jogo*, *IOOnline*, *Correio do Povo*, and *A Semana*). The online application (Google Analytics) filtered online news daily according to the following keywords: "Rio 2016" and "Olympic Games." Inclusion criteria included the following: available and complete news online; keywords established; news written in Portuguese, English, and Spanish

languages. In turn, exclusion criteria were related to the following: news published outside the time period mentioned above; news published in nonaccredited newspapers. Headlines and preambles were read and then the relevant news was retrieved ($n = 106$). At this stage, news that were not linked with the 2016 Rio Olympic Games or did not describe organizational issues were excluded. Finally, all news was read and classified according to the issue categories of Step 1.

Step 3: Content Analysis

Data Sources and Procedure. Semistructured interviews were conducted with stakeholders of the event (board members, staff, volunteers, and an institutional stakeholder) to further examine the issues raised by OCOG and their stakeholders. All interviews were conducted in Portuguese to make sure stakeholders were able to participate in the study. Access to the organizational database was made available by the Rio Olympic Games Organizing Committee (Olympic Education Program director), allowing different stakeholder groups to be interviewed. Interviewees provided their informed consent and all interviews were conducted in person between July 1 and August 4, 2016 to capture the preevent period. A total of 10 interviews were carried out at three different hierarchical levels within OCOG for comparison purposes and to have a holistic sense of issues and processes of the organization. The interview protocol is included in the Appendix 3 that can be viewed at <http://twixar.me/Yyym>. The participants were three board members (transport, Olympic sports, and Olympic education areas), three staff (accreditation, events production, and ticketing areas), one institutional stakeholder (local Olympic company), and three volunteers (Olympic sports, public support, and Olympic transport) of the 2016 Olympic Games. These interviews lasted between 20 and 30 min and were transcribed verbatim. Member checking was then employed to improve trustworthiness and credibility (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), with the transcripts being returned to interviewees so that they could add, modify, or delete any passage.

Data Coding and Analyses. A content analysis of organizational issues was conducted. Pattern

matching was possible through intrainterviewee/archival material coding. All data were firstly read twice by the main researcher to gain familiarity with the information, and then by a second researcher. Given that many discoveries can occur in the process of analyzing case study data, emerging findings were listed during the coding process. Data were then coded for all references to the organizational issues in organizing committee (politics, planning, marketing, financing, operations, media and visibility, human resources, negotiations and ethics, environmental, social, legacy, and infrastructures), and particular attention was paid to intercoder agreement in order to assess the extent to which the data were analyzed in the same way by two researchers. Quotations were linked with an issue category and a specific issue. Data were analyzed using ATLAS.TI software.

Results

Step 1: Systematic Review

The 59 documents included 40 journal articles, 6 academic books, and 13 official reports about the Olympic Games. A total of 18 studies with primary data, 24 with secondary data, and 17 conceptual pieces were identified. Most studies employed descriptive (i.e., nonempirical; $n = 41$) designs where organizational issues were identified at sport events and their contexts of occurrence were reported. In these studies, a total of 30 different sport mega-events were identified. The number of sport mega-events was less than the total number of documents analyzed, given that there were several documents about the same events (e.g., Olympic Games). A total of 196 specific issues were identified, distributed by 12 issue categories. Approximately 87 specific issues are consistent with the literature (Parent, 2008; Parent & Smith-Swan, 2013). These issues have been repeatedly identified in different contexts (e.g., traffic congestion issues in the 1996 Atlanta Olympics, traffic issues in the 2002 Japan and South Korea Soccer World Cup, and urban traffic jams in the 2008 Beijing Olympics are all issues associated with the lack of an adequate road network in the cities).

In addition, 29 new specific issues were identified that have not been diagnosed in previous

frameworks. These new issues were identified through systematic review (articles, $n = 40$; book chapters, $n = 6$) representing a contribution to the new proposed framework of organizational issues in the Olympic Games. These new issues have been described repeatedly in different contexts in 80 times (e.g., social habitation and inclusion issues: around 700,000 people were evicted before the 1988 Seoul Olympic Games, and more than 300,000 were forced to move from their houses ahead of the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games). This analysis also allowed the identification of three issue categories that have not been included in previous frameworks, namely social issues (e.g., Chapelet, 2001; Malfas et al., 2004; Parent et al., 2011), environmental issues (e.g., Bovy, 2009; DaCosta et al., 2008; Min & Zhen, 2010), and marketing issues (e.g., Drayer & Martin, 2010; Lemley & McKenna, 2010; Thamnopoulos & Gaglianos, 2002). In the current systematic review, operational and infrastructural issue categories were the most evidenced in both pre- and postevent phases. In turn, operational issues were more related to the duration of the event itself (i.e., Games time). The tendency for greater evidence of operational issues over the three event periods is explained by the number of

functional areas and the complexity of tasks (Parent & Smith-Swan, 2013).

Step 2: Documentary Analysis

A total of 106 news reports regarding organizational issues were collected from local, national, and international media. Each report was classified according to the issue categories identified through the systematic review. Findings showed 106 specific issues related to 12 issue categories of the Olympic Games. The issue categories identified through media were grouped into operational, political, and infrastructural. The specific issues linked to the operational category regarded the logistics and security during the preevent phase. Political instability and public infrastructure delays were captured through the media and categorized as political and infrastructural categories. An example of such issues captured through media is provided by the BBC (2016b) report “the issues 30 days before the Games,” which included delays in public transport infrastructure, insecurity during the Olympic Games, and ticket sales problems. In another example, El País (2016) reported issues related to the political instability of Brazil, due to

Table 1
Issue Categories Identified on Media

Issue Categories	Specific Issues	Example Sources
Marketing	Product distribution problems; low ticket sales; illegal ticket sales; licensing issues	BBC (2016b); Globo (2016a)
Negotiation and ethics	Noncompliance with contracts; unethical codes; lack of law support	DN (2016a); Agencia Brasil (2016)
HR	Volunteer management	The Wall Street Journal (2016b)
Operational	Lack of security; improper planning of ceremonies; lack of medical support, dropouts, complex technologies	USA TODAY (2016); Independent (2016b)
Financial	Poor cost control; budget overspend	O Parana (2016); Globo (2016b)
Planning	Lack of control, effectiveness, and decision making	The New York Times (2016)
Politics	Lack of regulation; political instability; public manifestations of unrest; undue political influence	El País (2016); Correio do Povo (2016)
Social	Lack of participation and involvement of residents; lack of corporate social responsibility	BBC (2016a); The New York Times (2017)
Environmental	Failures in waste management; water pollution	RTPN (2016); Globo (2016c)
Infrastructural	Infrastructure delays; unfinished works; insufficient public transport; poor accredited housing	Exame (2016); IOnline (2016)
Media and visibility	Image of the country affected by Zika virus; inappropriate management of broadcasting rights; failure to disseminate anticipated images of ceremonies	ESPN (2016); BBC (2016a); DN (2016b)
Legacy	Sport infrastructures without legacy plans	UOL (2016); The Guardian (2016b)

the 2016 Rio Olympic Games not having their Government ministers at the opening ceremony. Further, the International Business Times (2016) published news related to the 2016 Rio de Janeiro Olympic Games about controversies linked to increased public spending, incomplete infrastructures, and public health problems. Table 1 shows the specific issues identified through the documentary analysis.

When comparing to the systematic review, the documentary analysis identified 12 new specific issues: manifestations and pressure groups (political category); portrayal of a negative image (media and visibility category); product distribution, low official ticket sales, and illegal ticket sales (marketing category); waste management, climate change (environmental category); noncompliance with codes of conduct, legal support (negotiation and ethics category); absence of community participation (social category); and lack of usability of sport facilities after the event (legacy category). The other issues identified at this stage (94 problems) were already included in the 12 issue categories identified through the systematic literature review (Step 1).

Step 3: Content Analysis

The content analysis allowed to identify 36 specific issues that were classified into eight issue categories. The types of issues typically arising preevent were related to operations (e.g., logistical issues, transportation, security, accreditation, food and beverages, and drop out). For example,

the 2016 Rio Olympic Games board members mentioned that the “logistical issues such as the transport of materials and equipment, as well as transport of animals is a big difficulty and can be an issue too” (Rio Olympic Games director). In addition, a staff member mentioned a variety of security issues such as “conflict situations that led to aggression between the Olympic village security and the cleaning staff services” (Rio Olympic Games accreditation staff member).

Considering the hierarchical level of the interviewees, the findings showed that the board and staff members identified more issue categories (i.e., marketing, human resources, negotiation and ethics, operational, financial, planning, politics, infrastructures, and legacy), followed by the volunteers and the institutional stakeholder (i.e., marketing, human resources, negotiation and ethics, operational, and financial). The board members mainly confirmed issues related to infrastructures and operations. An example of such issues is provided by a Rio Olympic Games board member who said that “there is a lack of signage within the sports facility such as heating areas and play fields” (Rio Olympic Games executive director). Staff members identified event problems, with a greater emphasis in operational and financial issues such as “staff payments are late and will continue on post-Games due to lack of financial capacity” (Rio Olympic Games ticketing staff member). Volunteers disclosed issue categories more related to managing available staff and volunteers, as well as the coordination of work teams. One interviewee said that

Table 2
Specific Issues Identified Through the Interviews

	Board	Staff	Volunteers	Stakeholder	<i>N</i>
Marketing	1	1		1	3
Human resources	4		3		7
Negotiation and ethics		1		1	2
Operational	2	5	5	1	13
Financial	1	2		1	4
Planning		1			1
Politics	1	1			2
Social					0
Environmental					0
Infrastructural	1	1	3		5
Media and visibility					0
Legacy	1				1
<i>N</i>	11	12	11	4	38

“honestly, the majority of volunteers know nothing about the Olympic Stadium. We don’t know what to do, or where to go” (Rio Olympic Games volunteer). The institutional stakeholder highlighted a few communication issues related to the marketing category: “one of the main difficulties is to engage people with the event and I don’t see the population engaged in the Olympics” (institutional partner). Table 2 shows the results for each stakeholders group interviewed.

Proposed Framework

On the basis of the systematic review (Step 1), documentary analysis (Step 2), and content analysis

(Step 3), a conceptual typology of organizational issues in the Olympic Games is proposed in Table 3. Following previous literature (Parent, 2008; Parent & Smith-Swan, 2013; Wartick & Mahon, 1994; Zyglidopoulos, 2003), organizational issues are defined in the proposed framework as controversial inconsistencies based on expectational gaps between the organizing committee and their stakeholders, which affect corporate performance and have an impact on the organization’s success. Consistent with research in sport marketing and management, marketing issues (Lemley & McKenna, 2010; Olympic Agenda 2020, 2014; Thamnopoulos & Gagalianos, 2002; Whitelegg, 2000), social issues (Chappelet, 2001; Malfas et al., 2004; Mao & Huang, 2016; Ritchie

Table 3
Organizational Issues Identified Through Systematic Review, Interviews, and Media News

Issue Categories	Specific Issues	Example Sources
Marketing	Ticketing, distribution, secondary market, advertising and communication, sponsorship management, and licensing	Séguin and O’Reilly (2008); BBC (2016b); Drayer and Martin (2010)
Media and visibility	Media coverage, information management, reputation, destination image, ambush marketing, and broadcasting rights	Parent and Smith-Swan (2013); Knott et al. (2015); ESPN (2016); Parent and Chappelet (2015)
Financial	Budget management, cost control, and external support	Friedman et al. (2004); Rivenburgh (2008); Baade and Matheson (2016)
Planning	Structure, team composition, work plans (operational, divisional, business), risk management, decision making, and effectiveness	Official reports Sydney, Athens, Beijing and London
Negotiation and ethics	Relationships, negotiation with partners, legal support, contracts, ethical codes, competition manipulation	Parent (2008); Doolittle (2011); Müller (2017)
Operational	Accreditation, food and beverage, transport, medical support, security, technology, drop-offs, ceremonies, cultural events and logistics	Rivenburgh (2008); Minis et al. (2006); H. J. Kim et al. (2006)
Infrastructures	Sport facilities and equipment (training and competition venues, signage, cleaning, equipment and quality), nonsports facilities (accommodation, hospitals, road network, airports, public transport, distribution points and ATMs)	King (1991); Ratnatunga and Muthaly (2000)
Human Resources	Volunteering, expectations management, participation, coordination, leadership, motivation, teamwork, responsiveness, accountability, flexibility, work allocation	Burbank et al. (2001); Mafas (2004); Globo (2016c); Holmes et al. (2018)
Politics	Political influence, protocol, government support, political instability, pressure groups, regulation	Baade and Matheson (2002); Grix (2013); El País (2016)
Environmental	Pollution, waste management, environmental virus, climate, heritage degradation, and deterioration	DaCosta et al. (2008); Ma et al. (2011)
Social	Local involvement, social habitation, urban renewal, social responsibility, social inclusion, and participation	Mao and Huang (2016); Parent (2016); BBC (2016a)
Legacy	Employment, tourism, business opportunity, knowledge transfer, education and personal development, sports development, facilities maintenance, and sustainability	Leopkey and Parent (2012); Preuss (2018); The Guardian (2016b); Olympic Agenda 2020

et al., 2009), and environmental issues (Cashman, 2010; Executive Sustainability Report, 2011; S. Kim & Petrick, 2005; Olympic Agenda 2020, 2014) were included in our proposed framework. In addition to these three issue categories, negotiation and ethics issues (i.e., relationship management issues) were also included as ethical problems that often arise from the relationship between the organization and its partners, who have legal or moral responsibilities in pursuing specific objectives (Müller, 2017). Similarly, media issues and a visibility category were included, because both are associated with image aspects (Parent & Foreman, 2007), media coverage (Entman, 1989), and reputation; thus, affecting the organizational performance perceived by media influences (Parent & Smith-Swan, 2013).

In line with these considerations, the proposed framework includes 76 specific issues distributed by 12 issue categories: (a) marketing; (b) media and visibility; (c) financial; (d) planning; (e) negotiation and ethics; (f) operational; (g) infrastructures; (h) human resources; (i) politics; (j) environmental; (k) social; and (l) legacy. Each one of these 12 issue categories account for the overall framework of organizational issues of the Olympic Games, being reflected through their respective specific issues ($n = 76$) and sources (Table 3).

Discussion and Managerial Implications

The purpose of this study is to extend previous research conducted about organizational issues in Olympic Games. Through a mixed-method approach consisting of a systematic review of the literature, analysis of media news and interviews with stakeholders, a new and updated framework is proposed. Given that existing frameworks were not capturing important organizational issues arising in recent events, the current study contributes to the literature through an updated framework linked to the Olympic Games that provides an overview of the issue categories that organizing committees must deal with.

The results of the systematic review of the literature indicate that operational aspects were the most observed issues. These issues represented an overarching concern for all interviewees and media before the 2016 Rio Olympic Games. As noted by Parent (2008), operational issues are among the most prominent issue categories during

the planning phase of a sport mega-event. This is often related to the initial projects for sport venues and facilities, the contingency plans, technological determination, and other operational needs, such as medical support, security, transport, accommodation, and all needs. For example, the 2014 Sochi Olympic Winter Games were criticized because of Russian security issues (Parent & Chappelet, 2015). Furthermore, in the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games, the accreditation of the bus drivers failed during the event (Sydney Olympic Games Official Report, 2000). As a result, it is important that event hosts consider all possible risks, including location, previous experience, staff, facilities, timing, access ways to anticipating and planning effective operational responses.

The infrastructure category was also commonly identified by the interviewees and media regarding the 2016 Rio Olympic Games. As noted by Bovy (2009), the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games had traffic congestions because of the lack of infrastructure. Similarly, India's attempt to host the 2010 Commonwealth Games was plagued with planning and infrastructural problems (e.g., bridge collapsing; Parent and Chappelet, 2015). Anecdotal evidence suggests that incomplete infrastructures in the 2016 Rio Olympic Games (International Business Times, 2016) led to opposition, delays, and legal actions by the population (CNBC, 2016). These public manifestations have strengthened the importance of the social issues related to the Olympic Games. Hosting sport mega-events may create negative effects in host cities such as prostitution and displacement of residents (S. Kim & Petrick, 2005; Ohmann et al., 2006), with Smith (2014) arguing that the hosting of such events actually hurts those stakeholders within society who are already worse off. H. J. Kim et al. (2006) noted that residents' attitudes towards the event tend to worsen over time, while Ribeiro et al. (2018) reported that social conflicts and increased costs were negative aspects associated by locals to the 2016 Rio Olympic Games. In a similar vein, during the 2010 Vancouver Winter Olympic Games, the local government were concerned with social issues such as housing and urban renewal (Parent et al., 2011). This suggests that social issues at the Olympic Games represent critical aspects that managers should take into consideration when planning the event. In fact, social

issues and the social impact of the Olympic Games have been recognized to be an important aspect contributing positively or negatively to the value of sport events (Chalip, 2006). In this sense, hosts should consider stakeholders' opinions, in order to increase civic pride (Rocha, 2017), provide good work experiences, encourage volunteering (M. Kim et al., 2010), increase sport participation, and promote well-being and community health (Inoue et al., 2018).

The political issues were also an important category. These can include power struggles, political "games," government support, lobbying, intercity competition (Parent, 2008), as well as aspects highlighted during the interviews such as political instability, pressure groups, and regulation issues. For example, the 2013 Confederations Cup and the 2014 FIFA World Cup, both in Brazil, have generated strong criticism due to the budget allocated by the government resulting in street protests in the years leading to the events (Parent & Chappelet, 2015). In addition, recent anecdotal evidence from the 2016 Rio de Janeiro Olympic Games showed that thousands of people have joined anti-Olympic protests before the beginning of the event against the interim President and the hosting of the Olympic Games (The Washington Post, 2016b). These issues were also highlighted in the documentary analysis and interviews and link with other issues, namely the financial issues.

Previous studies suggest that financial issues are an overarching concern for all organizing committee members of the Olympic Games (Ribeiro et al., 2018), and a concern for external stakeholders (Parent, 2008). But once a bid is accepted, governments typically find a way to pay. When Athens and Montreal hosted the Olympic Games, there were factors that united them in their financial hardships. Unforeseen spending, overcoming the original budget, and an inability to maximize the use of venues have all contributed heavily to each city's economic decline (Leopkey & Parent, 2009; Parent & Foreman, 2007). Recently, the IOC provided the "The New Norm" to address many challenges associated with bidding for and hosting the Olympic Games (Olympic, 2018). There have already been considerable savings, including USD\$2.2 billion following the review of the venue masterplan that started in 2014. This suggests that

the IOC is concerned with financial issues, which aligns with the documentary analysis and interview results derived from the current study.

The negotiation between stakeholders and ethics issues are also important for organizing committees of the Olympic Games. Previous studies suggest that relationship issues represent the rule of expectation management, discussion, and negotiation with stakeholders (Parent, 2008). For example, the 1996 Atlanta Olympic Games exacerbated negative relations with the media, angering journalists who were prevented from accessing their audio equipment (Rivenburgh, 2008). In another example, after a bribery scandal related to several members of the 2002 Salt Lake Organizing Committee, the IOC instituted an Ethics Commission, bestowing the committee with the responsibility of serving as guardian of the ethical principles of the Olympic Movement (Friedman et al., 2004). More recently, anecdotal evidence from the 2016 Rio de Janeiro Olympic Games suggest that the event missed the "gold medal for human rights" and the opportunity to improve lives of those in the city (The Guardian, 2016b). Also, interviewees noted that "a lot of local communities were left without their houses, as well as the plight of children and young people whose lives were affected by the 2016 Rio Olympics" (institutional partner). Thus, understanding what factors drive negative relationships and ethical issues of the Olympic Games assume a critical importance for event managers and hosts.

The sport mega-event's performance may be influenced by planning errors and requires an adequate business plan for avoiding these issues (Chappelet, 2019; Parent, 2008). As noted by Pillay et al. (2010), the business plan of a sport mega-event should consider ways to mitigate problems through good planning, management, and communication. Consistent with this view, Horne and Manzenreiter (2004) noted that the 2010 World Cup held in South Africa reflects the limited transparency that prevailed during the decision-making processes. Parent and Chappelet (2015) further referred that the organizing committee of the 2010 Vancouver Winter Olympics planned the use of 10 different languages, but no language service was provided for the Nordic nations limiting the quality of the service delivery. On the other hand, previous studies have suggested that risk management issues are

important for preventing terrorism and improving security (Leopkey & Parent, 2009), and should be at the forefront of the planning of mega-events (Toohey & Taylor, 2008). For example, despite being categorized as high security risk, Qatar was picked to host the 2022 FIFA World Cup (BBC Sport, 2014).

The human resources issues emerged as an important issue category that organizing committee members had to manage on the preevent period, capturing the impact that people have on the OCOG (Xing et al., 2008). The staff and volunteer management/roles, motivation, teamwork, and leadership sharing are some specific issues related to human resources that affect the organizing committee (Parent, 2008). Several studies have showed that these problems relate to retaining and motivating volunteers and paid staff members (Hanlon & Jago, 2004; M. Kim et al., 2010; Parent & Séguin, 2007). Event organizers have a significant influence on human resources, including how volunteers and paid staff are managed. Although this influence varies from one event to another, such specifications generally cover aspects such as staff requirements (e.g., status, skills, expertise), characteristics, goals, and position of stakeholders (Parent & Chappelet, 2015). Thus, it is important to carefully plan and organize the work tasks. For example, one of the interviewees of the current study said that “human resources were a great challenge, not because of the difficulty of hiring but to have the core team you want with you” (Rio Olympic Games executive director). Further, volunteers of the 2016 Rio Olympic Games acknowledged problems related to the lack of coordination and rudeness of managers (Independent, 2016a), which highlights the importance of proper procedures for creating a coherent management team (Parent & Séguin, 2007; Parent et al., 2011).

The media and visibility categories appear to be paramount for explaining destination image, identity, media coverage, and reputation of the Olympic Games (Foreman & Whetten, 2002; Papadimitriou et al., 2018; Parent, 2008). The literature on country destination and awareness suggests that people’s competencies are also related to beliefs about the destination (Nadeau et al., 2008). Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that country and people competencies would also impact the image and attitudes

towards the Olympic Games. For example, in the months before the 2004 Athens Olympic Games, media coverage regarding delays of sport facilities construction were portrayed like a generalized issue by the Organizing Committee (Gibson et al., 2008). Yarbrough (2000) further considered that the image of the 1996 Atlanta Olympic Games portrayed by media was a disaster (e.g., IT problems, ineffective transportation system, and a bomb explosion in the Olympic city), affecting the city’s image. This suggests that low organization patterns may negatively influence the public opinion and the media coverage of sport mega-events (Parent, 2008). Furthermore, another new issue closely related to media and visibility is the inability to protect the “exclusive” rights of sponsors resulting in ambush marketing strategies faced by the Olympic Movement (Biscaia & Rocha, 2018; Séguin & O’Reilly, 2008). For example, at the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa, 36 women were expelled from a stadium during a game between the Netherlands and Denmark for being dressed in orange; this is the color of the Netherlands team but also the color of the Bavaria beer company (Lemley & McKenna, 2010). Thus, this issue category provides important insights for the management of an event’s image. On the other hand, the potential value of the Olympic Games as a vehicle for marketing and commercial sponsorship really took shape from the 1984 Olympic Games in Los Angeles (Xing et al., 2008).

The marketing issues can influence ticket sales and generate difficulties in developing a communication strategy (Parent & Séguin, 2008; Pitt et al., 2010). Previous studies suggest that in the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games there were issues that decreased ticket sales leading to a fall in revenue (Thamnopoulos & Gaglianos, 2002). According to Richelieu (2004), it is only through a clear identity and strong positioning that marketing actions become relevant for promoting the sport mega-events. In line with this view, the IOC has recently produced an Olympic channel (Olympic Agenda 2020, 2014) to promote Olympism and engage younger generations, fans, and new audiences with the Olympic Movement (IOC, 2017).

The environmental issues have also become increasingly important for hosting the Olympic Games. Past research suggests that environmental devastation resulting from the Olympic facilities

construction and the transport systems renewal can lead to physical degradation of biological environment (e.g., air, water, soil, and visual pollution; Mao & Huang, 2016). This suggests that the host citizens need to be well prepared for the changes in the city's built environment that may start as early as the bid period and develop further in the 7 years before the Olympic Games. For example, the IOC has encouraged the development of a sustainability strategy to enable potential and actual Olympic Games organizers (Olympic Agenda, 2020, 2014). Consistently, the Beijing organizing committee for the 2022 Olympic and Paralympic Winter Games is developing efforts to set a new standard in utilizing the Olympic influence to boost ecological progress and sustainability of the host regions (The Telegraph, 2018). Also, this suggests that there is a growing contemporary awareness that the Olympic Games can have negative impacts on the environment if not managed properly.

Finally, following the planning and implementation of the Olympic Games, evaluation and management of event-related legacies is crucial for proper long-term governance (Parent & Smith-Swan, 2013; Preuss, 2015). However, host cities often invest in new infrastructures that are oversized or not needed in the long term (Boukas et al., 2011; Gratton & Preuss, 2008). If such infrastructures do not have a significant postevent use they can become a burden to the taxpayers (Cashman, 2010). In the case of the 2016 Rio Olympic Games, there were negative impacts such as the lack of maintenance and degradation of many sport facilities (e.g., Maracanã Stadium and Aquatic Stadium) (CNN, 2017). Furthermore, there are intangible legacies such as additional employment, local business opportunities, city marketing, collective memory, increased education, experience, and additional know-how that must be taken into account when planning sport mega-events (Gratton & Preuss, 2008). This means that what happens after the event should be considered when bidding, planning, and managing sport mega-events. Although recent studies have found that the bid process itself may bring positive benefits regardless of the outcome (Bason & Grix, 2018), the legacy needs to be considered at this early stage as well (Preuss, 2015). Dickson (2017) argued that during the immediate build-up to the event, it is crucial to enact plan strategies aiming

to generate positive legacies. It is also worth noting that the recent IOC initiative (The New Norm) invites opportunities to reduce venue sizes, rethink transportation options, optimize existing infrastructure, and reuse the field of play for various sports, which will likely affect the postevent phase of the upcoming Olympic Games in 2022, 2024, and 2028 (Olympic, 2018).

The findings of the current study have both theoretical and managerial implications in the context of hosting Olympic Games. The current framework shows that organizational issues have often occurred during the last Olympic Games editions. For example, issues related to transportations, the security, and corruption seem to be recurrent (Atlanta, Sochi, and Rio de Janeiro). According to the proposed framework, 12 issue categories have been faced by OCOGs in the last 20 years. These results reveal the importance of understanding the organizational issues for better planning and managing the Olympic Games. The proposed framework differs from other existing ones given that it adds new issue categories that highlight the importance of environmental, social, and marketing in the Olympic Games. In addition, this framework prioritizes not only issues that occurred in the past but also updates specific issues from Rio 2016, so that organizing committees can operate more efficiently and effectively in future endeavors. Thus, the IOC and the OCOG should take into account this framework to strengthen the link with their stakeholders and to prevent issues from repeating in the future.

In addition, the current framework will likely aid host cities, policy makers, and organizing committees to focus their attention on contemporary issues and subsequently adopting new preventive measures (e.g., planning against environmental virus, public protests, cyber-attacks, risk of crowd management). From a managerial perspective, event managers should be vigilant with current issues such as technology [e.g., malfunctioning of the four arms of the Olympic cauldron at the Vancouver Winter Olympics (Parent & Smith-Swan, 2013)], security quality [e.g., extremists posting "detailed instructions" on a website to launch an attack in the 2012 London Olympic Games (The Telegraph, 2012)], pollution and climate issues [e.g., heavy air pollution threatening public health

at the 2008 Beijing Olympics (Min & Zhen, 2010)], given that these organizational issues have critical implications for resource allocation, as well as for the delivery of the events. In sum, this proposed framework of organizational issues may act as a roadmap to save valuable time and resources in preparing and hosting mega-events, by detecting and preventing the issues from taking place.

Research on organizational issues in sport has the capacity to generate new theoretical caveats in existing work, while also providing a fertile ground for the evolution of grounded theories (Parent, 2016). This echoes a call for a broader and deeper application of issues management theory within organizational issues (Parent, 2008) and stakeholder theory (Parent, 2016) in the Olympic Games context. The results also reveal that the stakeholders' expectations, needs, and interests vary, as do the relationships with the organizing committees (Parent & Smith-Swan, 2013), which was evident through the interviews conducted in the current study. As shown in Table 2, board and staff members identified various issue categories, which justifies the material and political interest of the event. Informational interests were essentially indicated by volunteers to obtain data, news, and other information aiming to aid the organizing committee. Moreover, only the institutional stakeholder showed an affiliative interest related with human relationships and the need to belong to a group (e.g., social engagement).

In summary, this conceptual framework provides the organizing committees of the Olympic Games with an updated tool for assessing organizational issues affecting the event. Also, it may aid event managers understanding of how to plan and strengthen their relationships with different stakeholders. This framework is expected to contribute for improving event management, preventing issues, and aiding in a proper planning before, during, and after the event.

Limitations and Future Research

This study, as with any, has limitations that should be acknowledged and taken into consideration for future research. Firstly, although various sources were used to identify relevant studies, it is possible that this review has omitted some key studies published in non-English sources and/or published

before 1990 or after 2015. Secondly, this review was conducted within the broader framework of organizational issues considering 12 issue categories as opposed to specific issues within the broad categories. As academic inquiry within the realm of organizational issues evolves, our expectation is that further differentiation within categories will emerge alongside the identification of additional categories. Future research could also examine particular issue categories or specific issues in more detail to build and develop the sport event management literature.

Thirdly, interviews were conducted with only 10 stakeholders, and the sample is not representative of all stakeholders and the organizing committee of the 2016 Rio Olympic Games. Additional studies about the Olympic Games should seek to gather participant data from all functional areas to further clarify perceptions of organizational issues of the event. Fourthly, media news about the Olympic Games may change over time because the opinion of local communities change, and/or new political decisions emerge (e.g., legacy management or infrastructure maintenance). Given that the external image and media attention requires a time axis (Chalip et al., 2003), future studies could try to collect news through a longitudinal approach (before, during, and after the event takes place) to better understand organizational issues in the Olympic Games.

Finally, sport mega-events such as the Olympic Games are subject to great criticism among the population (Globo, 2017). Although the current study did not control staff opinions about hosting the event, future studies should gather their opinion about this matter through larger samples of participants to better identify potential issues and outcomes of the Olympic Games for the organizing committee. The inclusion of interviews with different stakeholders of the Olympic Games (e.g., global sponsors, local communities, Olympic family) in future studies should also be useful for the evaluation of organizational issues and stakeholder interests (Reichart, 2003). In addition, future research should examine the interrelationships between the various issue categories and stakeholder groups to better aid managers at mapping and managing issues related to the Olympic Games. This information will likely aid future hosts to better handle the

challenges before, during, and after the unfolding of the Olympic Games.

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